WOMEN OF MEXICO WORKING TO KEEP EDUCATION ALIVE

Miss Maria Arias, Member of Carranza's Commission of Teachers, Tells of School Systems

Pictures Carranza as Patron of Learning and Asserts He Is Doing All in His Power to Foster It---Her Own Experience as an Adherent of Madero

TO be 24 years old and to have been through a revolution, in jail twice, spied upon by specially appointed agents, trusted by high Government officials, hounded, starved, honored and still to remain unaffected and filled with enthusiasm—such experiences sound more like those of a heroine of romance than a twentieth century individual. But Miss Maria Arias of Mexico has gone through all this and more. Now she is visiting the United States as a member of the commission sent by the Carranza Government to study the American educational system.

Miss Arias had to start her adventures very young in order to pile so much into her life. She began school when she was but 3 years old.

"I had very good memory when I was a baby, but not now," she said. "See, it has taken me since last September to learn the English, and yet I do not know eet all."

In vain I assured her that her vocabulary was remarkable, far better than that of the average American. What I did not tell her was that her manner of speech was delicious—the soft purring Latin voice, the deliberate enunciation, and a peculiar accent all her own and wholly charming.

I asked her to tell me something about the Mexican school system. It seems that education is one of the foremost considerations of the numerous Mexican reformers.

Ordinarily the schools of Mexico city require a course of eleven years—two years in the kindergarten, four years in the elementary school, two years in the superior school, five years in the normal school. Also it is possible to receive professional training as a doctor, lawyer, engineer, &c., absolutely free in the public schools.

In the kindergarten the children are at school only from 9 to 11:30 A. M. In the primary schools they open from 9 to 11 with their classes; then go home for the important midday meal and siesta; then they are at school again from 3 to 5. In the superior and normal schools the hours are from 8 to 12 and from 3 to 5. In the lower grades the teachers are all women, but in the superior and normal schools men teach the boys. One of the plans for the future is coeducation in all grades.

The President of Mexico appoints the Secretary of Education for the whole of Mexico, and the job of the Secretary is no sinecure. In the first place the Governor of each State names his own Board of Education and he may name highbrows or highwaymen, according to his inclinations. Then also each Mexican State has its own peculiar educational needs, due to difference in customs, often in race. A form of education adaptable to Chihuahua in the north would not be at all suitable to Chiapas in the south, or Yucatan in the east, or Sonora in the west.

Carranza has, according to Miss Arias, chosen a man exceptionally well fitted to meet these various educational needs. Felix Palavicini is about 35 years old. He has studied in universities of the United States and Europe and during the Diaz regime he taught handicrafts in the Mexican schools. He had long realized the need of education in Mexico, even in the large cities. So when Carranza appointed him he immediately organized the teachers who had congregated in Vera Cruz and started a system of travelling schools.

These teachers went to the various States (of course only those under Carranza control) and established schools. In some cases they were industrial schools, in others commercial schools, or schools for general education. Teachers in each State were trained by these itinerant instructors and then they went further.

Miss Arias had volunteered as one of these travelling teachers, but Carranza selected her instead to form one of the commission which he has sent to study in the United States. Naturally she is very enthusiastic about Carranza.

"He has complete—what you say?—hope, charity—ah, yes, faith, in the progress of Mexico through education. He is the one man who thinks in the war and in the peace," she said. And Miss Arias started on another paan of praise for Carranza.

But I had heard of the adventurous life of this young woman, and I was determined to learn more of it, though every time I pointed a question at her she hedged and grew enthusiastic over some one else.

"Now I don't really care to hear any more about Mexico, I want to hear about you," I finally said.

"Why, I came to New York last September to study school conditions, and, oh, just think how wonderful Mr. Carranza is!" and she was off again.

"Very nice, but now tell me about yourself."

"Why, I am going this summer to Massachusetts to attend a summer school to learn better the English, and in the fall I come back to New York. Maybe then I go back to Mexico, maybe I stay here a little longer."

"Now that isn't at all what I want to know. When did you leave school? After that what did you do, and after that?" And so, bit by bit, I finally heard her story, told with many blushes and always without enthusiasm for the other fellow.

When Madero was made President Miss Arias was teaching in the normal schools of Mexico. She had long been aware of the evils of the Diaz regime and she welcomed the coming of the dreamer Madero.

"I love very much Mr. Madero," she said.

One of the plans Madero approved was the establishment of Sunday schools. Not Sunday schools like those familiar in this country, but schools for teaching the three Rs, so that the poor people who worked six days a week could have a chance for education on Sunday. There are no time limit labor laws in Mexico, no age limit labor laws; so that the attendance at these Sunday schools included grownups and children, and they afforded in many cases the only opportunity for education these people had ever had.

Another plan was the travelling schools, the teachers volunteering to do this work among the distant ranches and haciendas during vacation time. Madero appropriated all the money required for these schemes. He was especially enthusiastic over the idea of the Sunday schools. He opened one of the public school buildings for the experiment and Mrs. Madero contributed prizes. The school was very successful. In nine months they taught seventy pupils to read and write and work in various handicrafts.

But with the death of Madero and the beginning of the revolution all thoughts of education for Miss Arias ceased for a while. She was an ardent supporter of Madero and a close personal friend of the family.

"I went with Mrs. Madero to the penitentiary to ask for the President's body after he was killed," she said. "Mrs. Madero was not permitted to remain in the penitentiary, so her brother, another woman and I remained. I was with Mrs. Madero when the President was buried. And when they must leave Mexico I decide to take care of Mr. Madero's grave.

"Many people they love Mr. Madero very much, so we organized a group of women to take care of the grave. We also collect the ribbons and cards that were sent in sympathy and forward them." And here, it seems, was where her life began to be really exciting.

Miss Maria Arias, the youthful member of the Carranza commission to study schools of the United States.

The Huertistas soon heard of this band of women and attempted to prevent them from carrying out their purpose. The women retaliated by placing each day on the grave a wreath of flowers and the placard eulogizing Madero and condemning Diaz and Huerta. Also they collected money for a tombstone for Madero. It was a very simple stone with merely the name and date of death engraved on it.

This organization of women grew rapidly. It became bolder and organized processions to march each Sunday to the grave through the streets of the city flying denunciatory banners and carrying wreaths of flowers. Every month the procession was fuller, the denunciations were more bitter, the flowers more profuse.

The organization became a permanent institution—it still exists—calling itself "Lealtad," meaning "loyalty." Its apparent purpose was the care of the graves of patriots. But its real object was to look after political prisoners and to plot and fight against Huerta.

You must understand that in Mexico the women take an important part in every campaign. In all the armies the women are taken along to cook and care for the men. Usually the entire family is present. The youngsters are often utilized for drummers and buglers and children of 12 and 14 frequently fight. But this band of women contented themselves at home by carrying good things to eat to the men in prison, looking after their clothing, communicating with their friends and hatching new revolutionary schemes.

At first the Lealtad movement seemed an emotional manifestation that would soon die out, and it received scant official attention. But it soon compelled serious consideration. When the women went to Madero's grave for the second time they found the church surrounded by soldiers. The women were admitted one by one, allowed to deposit their flowers only and then compelled immediately to depart.

"But I am person who makes up her mind and does it," said soft voiced Miss Arias.

The society held a meeting of protest outside. Then the members dispersed. But Miss Arias remained, and when chance offered she slipped into the church, deposited her placard with the flowers and departed unmolested.

The next month the soldiers were on hand at the church in greater numbers. All morning they waited for the Lealtad to appear. Nobody ever does anything between noon and sundown in easygoing Mexico, so after waiting throughout the morning the soldiers decided that their military genius had won out and they departed in peace to their siestas. And that is exactly what the women had expected they would do. The women waited until after the noon hour to assemble and then marched to the church without any hindrance whatever.

But though the soldiers were absent the police took note of the proceedings and the leading spirits. The next morning bright and early Miss Arias found herself in jail. But she only remained there one day.

"I told the chief of police it was no crime to care for tombs, to put flowers on graves. Also a great many people know me. An Englishman, he also was very kind. And so they let me go," she says.

Now she worked for the cause more earnestly than ever. She interceded in many cases with the embassies for political prisoners. She formed groups to take care of prisoners after they had been released, for in many cases their families had been forced to flee when the head of the house was seized. Many of the Deputies who had been imprisoned by Huerta selected Miss Arias to plead their cause in court.

"I had the luck to have some of the principal Deputies pick me," was the way she put it. But she was too busy a person to be allowed at large.

"Soon I also was put in jail. But always I am lucky. I was in jail only nine days when the United States troops entered Vera Cruz and Huerta granted an amnesty to all political prisoners."

But these nine days were the hardest she ever went through, she confessed. Her mother did not know where she was. And during the time she was imprisoned a dear sister died. Her cell was very small and very dirty. She had to sleep on the stone floor. The meals were poor and scanty and one day they forgot her food altogether.

Yet she had almost a worse time out of jail than in. She had absolutely no money and for some time no means of earning any. Though Huerta had pardoned her along with the others he evidently considered her a dangerous person and tried to force her into submission.

She was not allowed to teach in the public schools. Wherever she obtained employment a more or less polite intimation from the Government soon brought about her dismissal. Often for lack of carfare she had to walk miles, going from one place to another seeking employment. Her shoes gave out and her feet were blistered and yet she had to keep going. At last she obtained a place as teacher in a private American school.

The salary here was not very large, she had some back debts to pay off and so in order to save carfare she used to walk to school each morning, a distance of perhaps six or seven miles. It was a very beautiful road she followed, but very lonely. It ran along quite level for several miles, but just before it reached the village there was an extremely steep hill, one side of which went down almost perpendicularly to a fierce little stream below.

One morning on her way to school she noted an automobile behind her. She stepped aside to let it pass. But when she stopped the auto stopped. So she went on. So did the machine. She walked faster and the machine speeded up so as to continue just the same distance behind her. An idea of its real purpose came to her. When she arrived at the long hill it would speed up, and if the driver lost control and she was run over who could say it was not an accident?

She decided she would at least make an attempt to outwit her pursuers. She began running as fast as she could. The machine followed. As she twisted and turned and doubled on her tracks the auto came after her, but lost time on the curves. She went on and on, it seemed for an eternity. She was exhausted, almost ready to give up, when she spied a tiny hut a bit further down the road. One last effort and she fell against its door senseless. The auto made another turn and went back up the hill.

"Always I am lucky," said Miss Arias.

Thereafter she rode to school. "I had not much money, but I preferred to pay than to go to my death," she said.

But Huerta's agents did not forget her. They kept close tab on all her movements, and this she knew very well. Ever since her release from prison she had been active in revolutionary plots. Once when the conspirators met at her home the house was raided. But the officers found no incriminating evidence either on the premises or on the men and women present.

This adventure took place in June, just a little over a year ago, and it proved the last of Miss Arias's troubles. In July Carranza took Mexico city and he made her head of the normal school. She held this position only four months, when Carranza was forced to change his capital to Vera Cruz. She followed him there, volunteering as a Red Cross nurse.

But Carranza had other plans for her. He believed she had greater use educationally than in the nursing field. So in October he sent her to the United States.

She is just as enthusiastic over her work here as over any of her exciting escapades in Mexico. In fact enthusiasm is one of her dominant traits. The minute she hears something new she becomes all alive with interest. I asked her, for instance, if Mexico had public playgrounds. She did not know what I meant, so I explained. Her eyes flashed.

"Oh, that is quite right; that is very fine," she exclaimed. And she immediately started in to quiz me about the why, how, wherefore of playgrounds. She also intended to investigate the Montessori schools while here, and dropped a hint about half a dozen or more other serious purposes.

Carranza photographed with a group of Mexican school teachers.

Felix F. Palavicini, Minister of Public Instruction and Fine Arts

PROBATION SYSTEM'S SPREAD.

ONE of the most active of the small departments of the New York State government is the State Probation Commission. As shown by a recent report on the State departments prepared for the benefit of the Constitutional Convention by the Department of Efficiency and Economy and the New York Bureau of Municipal Research this commission is entirely separate in its organization and duties from any other State department. It has a large and unique field, namely, that of developing, extending and improving probation work in all the courts of the State.

Probation is defined as a system by which a court seeks to supervise, discipline and reform offenders without branding them as prisoners and without sentencing them to jail or prison. It is intended especially for the young or first offenders. It is used in all kinds of courts and for all sorts of offences, but it is perhaps of greatest importance in the juvenile court. Probation has been called "the right arm of the juvenile court."

The first probation law in the State was enacted in 1901. Following the enactment of this law probation work in the courts developed slowly and irregularly throughout the State. A special commission to study the work was authorized by the Legislature of 1905; ten men and four women were appointed on this commission by Gov. Higgins. The commission made a thorough inquiry and presented a report the following year. Out of its work and recommendations grew the present State Probation Commission. The commission was created by the Legislature in 1907. Homer Folks has been president of the commission since its creation. Frank E. Wade, another of the original Commissioners, is now vice-president. The other members are Edward C. Blum of Brooklyn, Edmond J. Butler of New York, Judge Alphonso T. Clearwater of Kingston and Dr. John H. Finley, Commissioner of Education. The present secretary of the commission is Charles L. Chute, who succeeded Arthur W. Towne in 1913.

Some of the work the commission has accomplished toward extending and developing the probation system in the State is indicated by the following facts: When the commission began its work in 1907 there were only thirty salaried probation officers throughout the State. To-day there are 164. At the end of 1907 there were 1,620 persons of all ages on probation. At the end of 1914, there were 10,925. Besides assisting in this great extension, the commission has constantly urged discrimination in the selection of cases and the all importance of careful and thorough work on the part of probation officers.

The reports of the commission extending over seven years show that more than 70 per cent. of all persons placed on probation are reported by the probation officers each year as completing their terms of probation successfully and being discharged with improvement.

The cost of the State prisons, penitentiaries, adult and juvenile reformatories, for maintenance alone in 1913 was $2,292,349. This takes no account of the vast sums expended in lands, building and equipment and the sums spent annually for repairs and new construction. The average daily population of these institutions throughout the year was 11,414, making the per capita cost for a year's confinement $200.83. The entire estimated cost of the probation system for the year 1913 was $253,675. This includes salaries paid to all probation officers, an estimate of their expenses and the total appropriations to the State Probation Commission, which amounted to only $12,620. The average number on probation throughout the year was 8,485 persons. Therefore, the average per capita cost of a year's probation was only $29.92, less than one-sixth of the average expense for a year's imprisonment.

Besides the saving to the State and the various localities in dollars and cents, there is a greater saving. If offenders can be safely allowed to remain in society and continue as productive members thereof, society is relieved of the burden of supporting their innocent wives and children.

EDUCATION IN THE U. S. A HUGE INDUSTRY

About 22,000,000 Enrolled in the Great Army of Learners Which Is Led by a Staff of 700,000 Teachers

By J. O. KNOTT
of the U. S. Bureau of Education.

THERE were about 22,000,000 persons enrolled in the educational institutions of the United States in 1914, according to the annual report of the United States Commissioner of Education, which has just been completed. Over 19,000,000 of these were in the elementary schools, 1,375,000 in secondary schools, public and private, and 216,000 in colleges and universities. Close to another 100,000 were in normal schools preparing to be teachers. In professional schools there were 47,000.

The teachers of this army numbered 700,000, of whom 566,000 were in the public schools. In point of growth the high school still presents the most impressive figures—the enrolment for 1914 was 84,000 over the previous year.

As nearly as can be estimated, the cost of education for the year was $750,000,000. This is less by $300,000,000 than the cost of running the Federal Government; it is less than one-third of the nation's expenditures for alcoholic liquors; it is a little over three times the estimated cost of admission to moving picture theatres the same year; it is somewhat more than the value of the nation's cotton crop for the year, and somewhat less than the value of its wheat crop. Figures show that 60 per cent. of all the money spent in the United States in 1914 for education was spent for elementary schooling.

General and school population both remain predominantly rural. By the census estimates for 1913 46.3 per cent of the population was urban and 53.7 per cent. rural, if the census definition of a city as anything over 2,500 be accepted. In population from 6 to 20 years of age the cities have 41.6 per cent. of the total; the rural 58.4.

Statistics for 1914 emphasize the fact that private elementary schools in the United States are now confined almost entirely to church schools. The parish school system of the Roman Catholic Church in 1914 comprised 5,403 schools and 1,429,859 pupils—an increase of 147 schools and 69,098 pupils over 1913. The Lutheran parochial school system for 1914 reported 4,881 schools with 259,467 pupils—a decrease in schools and pupils.

Other religious bodies in the United States are in the main supporting elementary private schools only where public school facilities are not already available for all children of school age.

Higher and secondary educational institutions still remain the stronghold of denominational education. Of 567 colleges and universities tabulated for 1914 in the annual report, 327 are listed under denominational control, and of 2,199 private high schools and academies reporting, 1,489 are under control of religious denominations. These secondary institutions are maintained by 28 different denominations, and have 8,762 instructors and 101,329 students.

The high school continues to grow surprisingly. There were 13,714 public and private high schools in 1914, with 1,373,661 students. The students increased 90,652 over the previous year and increased 100 per cent. over the enrolment of 1902. The number of girls exceeded the number of boys in both public and private secondary schools in 1914, the proportion of girls being 56.03 per cent.

On the other hand, the reports show, men outnumber women in colleges about 2 to 1.

The junior high school, defined tentatively as "an organization of grades 7 and 8 or 7 to 9, to provide by various means for individual differences, especially by an earlier introduction of pre-vocational work and of subjects usually taught in the high schools," was indorsed by all but one of the school surveys published during the year, and by various educational associations. That the movement of the junior high school has advanced from the stage of theory to that of practice is indicated by 168 cities claiming to have junior high schools. After all deductions are made there remain 57 cities where junior high schools are organized in unmistakable form.

Students in colleges, universities and technological schools in 1914 increased 14,262 over 1913. Of the Bureau of Education's list of 567 institutions (a decrease of 29 over the previous year) 93 of them only are controlled by States or municipalities.

Benefactions to colleges and universities total $26,670,017—something over $2,000,000 more than in the year previous. Six institutions received benefactions in excess of a million dollars each, and forty-five universities, colleges and technological schools reported gifts amounting to more than $100,000. In the past seven years the largest increase in income has come through State and municipal appropriations, and the smallest from tuition and other fees. State and municipal appropriations grew from $9,649,549 in 1908 to $23,400,540 in 1914, while fees for tuition and other educational services increased from $15,390,847 to $22,504,529.

Degrees conferred by colleges and universities included 26,533 baccalaureate, 5,248 graduate and 749 honorary. The doctor of philosophy degree was conferred, as a result of examination by forty-six institutions, on but 446 men and seventy-three women

As a result of the vigorous campaign for higher standards waged during the past few years the number of "professional schools" has decreased materially. There was a falling off of three schools of theology, two law schools, eight schools of medicine and three schools of pharmacy. On the other hand there was an increase in students in professional schools from 14,252 to 15,686. Practically all of this increase is reported from the schools of dentistry, showing the increasing interest in dental hygiene as part of the public programme for good health.

In 1914 there were 4,496 graduates in law, 4,048 in medicine, 2,290 in pharmacy, 2,270 in dentistry and only 1,886 in theology. Yet while the receipts by professional schools of law totalled only $1,831,163, the receipts of schools and theology amounted to $4,246,501. The schools of medicine report the greatest receipts, $11,444,992.

There are now only seventeen medical schools that admit students on high school education or less. This is a notable change since 1904, when over half the world's supply of medical colleges was in the United States. There were then 162 colleges, with 28,142 students; there are now 100 colleges, with 16,940 students.

The Bureau of Education estimates that between 40,000 and 50,000 teachers began work in the fall of 1914 with at least a measure of professional preparation; but it is clear that the supply of professionally prepared teachers is not sufficient for the number of teaching positions that must be filled. The need is most keenly felt in the rural schools, where, according to a careful investigation during the year, not two-thirds of the teachers have any professional preparation.

"Teacher training," says the annual report, "has become almost a public function: as a private function it is carried on mainly in schools for kindergartens, schools for gymnasium instructors or in institutions for the training of denominational teachers."

Public appropriation for normal schools totalled $12,523,968 for the year, as compared with $10,432,252 last year and $2,212,952 a quarter of a century ago. The pressing need for teachers in the rural schools who will lead in the upbuilding of rural life and the failure of existing normal schools, for the most part, to meet this and other needs, have led to serious questioning of the existing provision for teacher training.

Vocational training as a national problem attracted attention through the report of the commission of Federal aid for vocational education, rendered in June, 1914. While the comprehensive bill drawn up by the commission was not acted upon by Congress, favorable action is expected eventually by the friends of the plan. Congress had already voted the Federal aid asked for in the Smith-Lever bill for agricultural extension education.

The most serious problem met by those who sought to enlarge their facilities for vocational training has been that of finding teachers. It has been difficult to secure teachers who were proficient in the trade to be taught and at the same time with professional training or experience in teaching. Apparently the most satisfactory plan has been to take men who are expert in the trade and give them training as teachers. A number of experiments made during the year in training trade workers for teachers of vocations by means of evening classes have proved successful.

Chicago has, in connection with its regular school system, a well organized system of vocational education through public secondary and evening schools. The majority o fthe teachers are practical men from the trades, the others being school men with college training in technical subjects but no trade experience.

In the girls' courses women with experience as milliners, dressmakers, managers of dining rooms and shop workers are in many cases in charge of classes in the high schools throughout the city. The night schools are taught largely by men from the trades. Special efforts have recently been put forth by means of home projects and otherwise to give a definite vocational bent to agriculture as taught in high schools. In both college and high school work there has been increased emphasis on the practical side of farming as opposed to "book agriculture."

In cities where investigations preparatory to the introduction of vocational training have been made attention has been quite generally paid to the problem of vocational guidance. Philadelphia's new official is director of both vocational education and guidance.

Significant as the progress of the movement of vocational guidance is the taking over by the public schools in whole or in part of the function of vocational counselling. The vocational guidance movement in Boston, for example, has now extended to nearly all of the public schools. In Chicago the system of vocational advisers has become clearly identified with the administration of vocational training in the public schools.

Some indication of the spread of the vocational guidance idea may be had from a preliminary investigation recently made by the Bureau of Education. Of over 7,078 public high schools replying to inquiries sent out 3,955 report that the principal or teachers give talks on different occupations and 2,290 high schools have outside speakers come in at times to describe different vocations.

Little if any real systematic attempt at guidance is reported. Even the teachers in the National Vocational Guidance Association, formed during the year, appear anxious lest the movement should become definitely fixed at its present point of development.

Medical inspection is reported by 704 cities of over 5,000 population out of 1,063 replying to the bureau's inquiries. Of these 704 cities 402 have school nurses numbering in all 911.

Investigations made during the year have driven home the fact that rural school children are more in need of health supervision than city children. The report of the joint committee of the council of education and the American Medical Association, presented during the year, showed that of 330,000 school children examined in New York city 70 per cent. were defective; an examination of 294,000 rural children in Pennsylvania revealed that 75 per cent. were defective.

The sixty-two public schools for the blind report 665 teachers, 4,971 pupils and an aggregate expenditure of $2,563,173 for the year 1914. It costs $380 a year on an average to instruct each blind child. This is an increase of $32 for each child over the preceding year. Of the 151 schools for the deaf listed by the bureau sixty-eight are State schools. The expenditure of the sixty-eight State schools for the deaf in 1914 was $3,777,162.

State schools for feeble minded children numbered thirty-eight for 1914. These are confined to twenty-eight States, New York, New Jersey, Massachusetts and Pennsylvania each having three or more schools. State schools for feeble minded children reported 27,692 inmates, of whom 14,880 were actually under instruction. Expenditures for schools for feeble minded children amounted to nearly $6,000,000.

Public day schools for subnormal children were reported from fifty-four cities. Thirty-six cities in twenty-four States made provision for exceptional children for the first time in 1913, and 162 cities in thirty-eight States extended the provision already made.

There are 112 institutions listed by the Bureau of Education as State "industrial" schools. There are schools for delinquents of both sexes, ranging from reform schools of the prison type to modern well equipped industrial schools for teaching useful trades.

There are 54,798 inmates in these institutions, of whom four-fifths are boys. Of the 21,655 boys and girls committed to such institutions during the year 2,635 could neither read nor write. Of the 22,068 discharged during the year 1,902 could neither read nor write.

Analysis of the parentage figures shows that American parentage prevails: Seventy-nine institutions report 20,617 inmates of American parentage on both sides; sixty schools report 2,640 with one American parent and sixty-six schools report 6,184 inmates with both foreign parents.